

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 120 646

CG 010 479

AUTHOR Fox, William M.
TITLE Identifying and Developing Leadership Aspects of Effective Management in Team-Oriented Task Groups. Technical Report 70-4.
INSTITUTION Florida Univ., Gainesville. Coll. of Business Administration.
SPONS AGENCY Office of Naval Research, Washington, D.C. Organizational Effectiveness Research Program.
PUB DATE 1 Mar 74
NOTE 53p.
EDRS PRICE MF-\$0.83 HC-\$3.50 Plus Postage
DESCRIPTORS *Contingency Management; Decision Making Skills; *Goal Orientation; Leadership; *Leadership Styles; *Management Development; Research Reviews (Publications); State of the Art Reviews; *Teamwork

ABSTRACT

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IDENTIFYING AND DEVELOPING LEADERSHIP ASPECTS OF
EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT IN TEAM-ORIENTED TASK GROUPS

By

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Technical Report 70-4, March 1, 1974

This research was sponsored by the Organizational Effectiveness Research Programs, Psychological Sciences Division, Office of Naval Research, under Contract No. N00014-68-A-0173-0010, Control Authority No. NR 170-815.

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SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE (When Data Entered)

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE		READ INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE COMPLETING FORM
1. REPORT NUMBER 70 - 4	2. GOVT ACCESSION NO.	3. RECIPIENT'S CATALOG NUMBER
4. TITLE (and Subtitle) IDENTIFYING AND DEVELOPING LEADERSHIP ASPECTS OF EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT IN TEAM-ORIENTED TASK GROUPS.		5. TYPE OF REPORT & PERIOD COVERED Technical Report 70 - 4
		6. PERFORMING ORG. REPORT NUMBER
7. AUTHOR(s) William M. Fox		8. CONTRACT OR GRANT NUMBER(s) N00014-68-A-0173-0010
9. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME AND ADDRESS College of Business Administration University of Florida Gainesville, Florida 32611		10. PROGRAM ELEMENT, PROJECT, TASK AREA & WORK UNIT NUMBERS NR 170-815
11. CONTROLLING OFFICE NAME AND ADDRESS Organizational Effectiveness Research Programs Office of Naval Research Code 452 Arlington, Virginia 22217		12. REPORT DATE March 1, 1974
		13. NUMBER OF PAGES 50
14. MONITORING AGENCY NAME & ADDRESS (if different from Controlling Office)		15. SECURITY CLASS. (of this report) UNCLASSIFIED
		16. DECLASSIFICATION/DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE
16. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of this Report) Approved for public release, distribution unlimited.		
17. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of the abstract entered in Block 20, if different from Report)		
18. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES		
19. KEY WORDS (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number) System Four Management Contingency Leadership Theory Model (Leadership, Normative) Survey Feedback Leadership Organization Development Survey (Leader- Lead-Lag Relationships Research (Leadership ship Literature) Management Style (Leadership) Training		
20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number) Leadership is distinguished from management. A review of key leadership studies is presented. Data on leadership styles are presented and problems in studying them are discussed. A normative model for leadership of team-oriented task groups based upon current research findings is presented. Documented lead-lag relationships between leader behaviors and various outcomes are examined. Managerial potential for behavior change and feedback approaches for effecting change toward the normative behaviors are discussed. ^{about 60} references to relevant research studies are given.		

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S/N 0102-014-6601

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IDENTIFYING AND DEVELOPING LEADERSHIP ASPECTS OF EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT IN TEAM-ORIENTED TASK GROUPS

Introduction

Most students of leadership have abandoned the naivete of early trait researchers who sought to identify and catalog fixed physical and mental characteristics associated with superior leadership performance across various situations. In fact, some feel that current findings suggest a set of interacting factors so complex as to constitute an extreme of frustration. However, this paper takes the position that there is a dynamic interpretation which accommodates these data; a model which the typical manager can move his behavior toward, given appropriate assistance in a supportive organizational milieu.

Yet, the subject of leadership effectiveness is sufficiently involved and unexplored for certain settings to warrant placing limits on the applicability of the model we will develop. Fiedler (1967) provides us with a useful taxonomy for this purpose. First, he distinguishes task groups from social or therapy groups. Then, he differentiates the former into those which are coaching, counteracting, and interacting.

The work of a coaching group permits its members to perform relatively independent of each other as is the case with a group of salesmen, each selling in his own territory. A counteracting group is characterized by subgroups in conflict or competition as is typical for a contract negotiating group comprising representatives of labor and management. An interacting group is more team-oriented with greater performance interdependency among its members. An extreme example is a basketball team. Since the preponderance

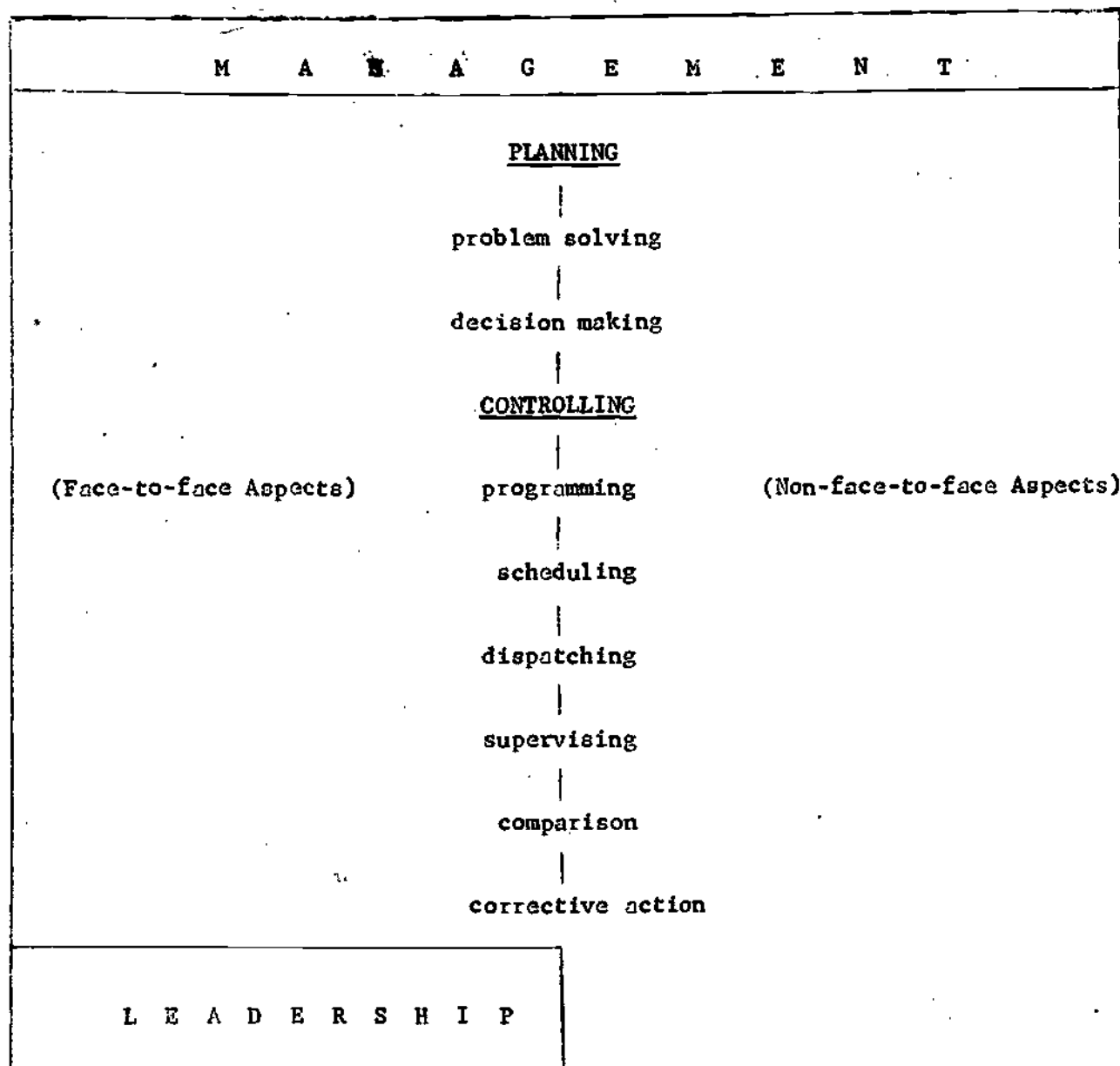
of research data we can draw upon was obtained from studies of team-oriented task groups, we will develop our normative model for this type.

Before discussing the model, we will examine the distinction between leadership, as it is typically defined, and management. The use of these terms interchangeably often creates unnecessary confusion. Then, we will sample a multiplicity of research findings which show that leadership effectiveness is dependent upon a number of interacting personal and situational factors . . . variables which will have to be accounted for in any normative model if it is to be realistic. Next, we will examine data as to actual leadership behavior across situations to suggest the extent to which managers do, in practice, adapt to these factors. Then, we will examine the model and problems associated with moving behavior toward it.

Leadership and Management

Some use the terms leadership and management interchangeably. A survey of definitions of leadership, however, reveals a dominant emphasis upon the concept of influence via personal interaction. To the extent that leadership is viewed as being limited to face-to-face relations in managing others (as is depicted in Figure I) it is a more restricted concept than management. For management encompasses non-interpersonal aspects of planning and controlling the work of others as well as the face-to-face or directly interpersonal aspects.¹

¹The identification of these functions is based upon an extensive review of the management literature. There is good agreement as to what the functions are but less agreement as to how they should be classified, that is, which should be listed as major functions and which as sub-functions. For the results of a survey of managers to determine what they perceive as basic management functions, see Robert J. House and John M. McIntyre, "Management Theory in Practice," Advanced Management, 26, 1961. For discussion of the rationale underlying the schema of management functions presented here, see W.M. Fox, "The Organic Functions of Management: A New Perspective," The Southern Journal of Business, January, 1967.



Only face-to-face aspects of some or all of the management functions are included in typical definitions of leadership.

Figure 1

Generally conceptualized, planning may be viewed as entailing problem-solving and decision-making. Problem-solving is the identification of relevant alternatives with regard to assumptions about future operating conditions, viable alternative goals within the context of these conditions, and relevant alternative means for achieving the goals and sub-goals which are selected. These alternatives may be identified on the basis of existing knowledge or on the basis of new knowledge (i.e., invention).

Decision-making is the process by which one alternative is selected from among two or more relevant alternatives. The decision-making process involves the assignment and integration of expected value and probability estimates either formally or informally. For further discussion, see Fox (1963) Chapter 2.

The management function of control is concerned with making events conform to plans and other standards. It has anticipatory as well as post-action aspects. It may be viewed as entailing programming, scheduling, dispatching, supervising the work of others (in addition to one's own work), comparison and corrective action.

Programming involves the routine collection of information which executors of action will require, and the necessary sorting, re-casting (into that form required by the user) and assignment of this information as planned.

Scheduling involves the translation of planned time requirements into actual calendar dates and times.

Through dispatching authority is released with regard to how to act as well as when to act. Delegation of authority is accomplished through dispatching. The release of approved technical orders, standard operating procedures, policies, specifications, and other such instruments indicates to organizational personnel how they are to perform certain activities when the

time comes for them to act. Authority to act is dispatched in the form of written or verbal operating orders and standing orders. A schedule, for example, has the force of an operating order when it is approved by proper authority.

Supervising involves selecting, training, assigning work to, instructing, motivating and coordinating group members as planned.

Comparison is the sub-function of comparing completed action with plans, schedules, budgets, specifications, or other approved standards to determine discrepancies. Unacceptable differences lead to appropriate corrective action.

Corrective action may range from the implementation of a pre-planned solution, such as the authorization of overtime work, to important new planning, for example, the development of a different motivational milieu for a group.

The performance of all of the management subfunctions is essential to the functioning of a team-oriented task group. Clearly, the formal responsibility for seeing that each is performed by some agency (individual or group) must rest with the appointed supervisor.

Though the way in which we have mapped the domain of management above is useful for general orientation purposes, it is just a starting point. It provides little guidance as to how certain sub-functions should be performed in various situations. This deficiency is most noticeable with regard to performance of the leadership aspects of planning, supervising, and corrective action. The biggest controversies about leadership have been associated with them. Because of this and the fact that most discussions of leadership are limited to these aspects, our remaining discussions will be based, also, upon this frame of reference.

Contingency Research: Personal and Situational Factors and Leadership Effects

Contingency research was prompted by the assumption that the effectiveness of given leader behaviors is contingent upon the circumstances in which they occur. The soundness of this assumption has been well established by research findings. Fiedler (1967) and Chemers and Skrzypek (1972) report data from a number of studies which show how the relationship between leader style (a behavioral predisposition across different situations) and group performance is moderated by a situational "favorability to leader score" based upon factors such as group atmosphere, leader position power, task structure, leader-key member relations, and stress. Studies by Bowers and Seashore (1966) Bowers (1971) Likert (1973) and Hunt, Osborn, and Larson (1973) show how the relationship between a manager's behavior and the performance and satisfaction of subordinates is moderated by the behavior of his boss and higher level management. They report both interactive and additive effects.

Vroom (1959) Vroom and Mann (1960) Day and Hamblin (1964) and Misumi and Seki (1971) report the moderating effects of group member personality attributes upon the relationship between a supervisor's behavior and the satisfaction and/or performance of his subordinates. Fiedler (1967) reporting findings from a number of his own studies and those of others, Shaw and Blum (1966) Mott (1972) and Bass and Valenzi (1973) show how the relationship between a leader's style and group effectiveness is moderated by the characteristics of the work to be done.

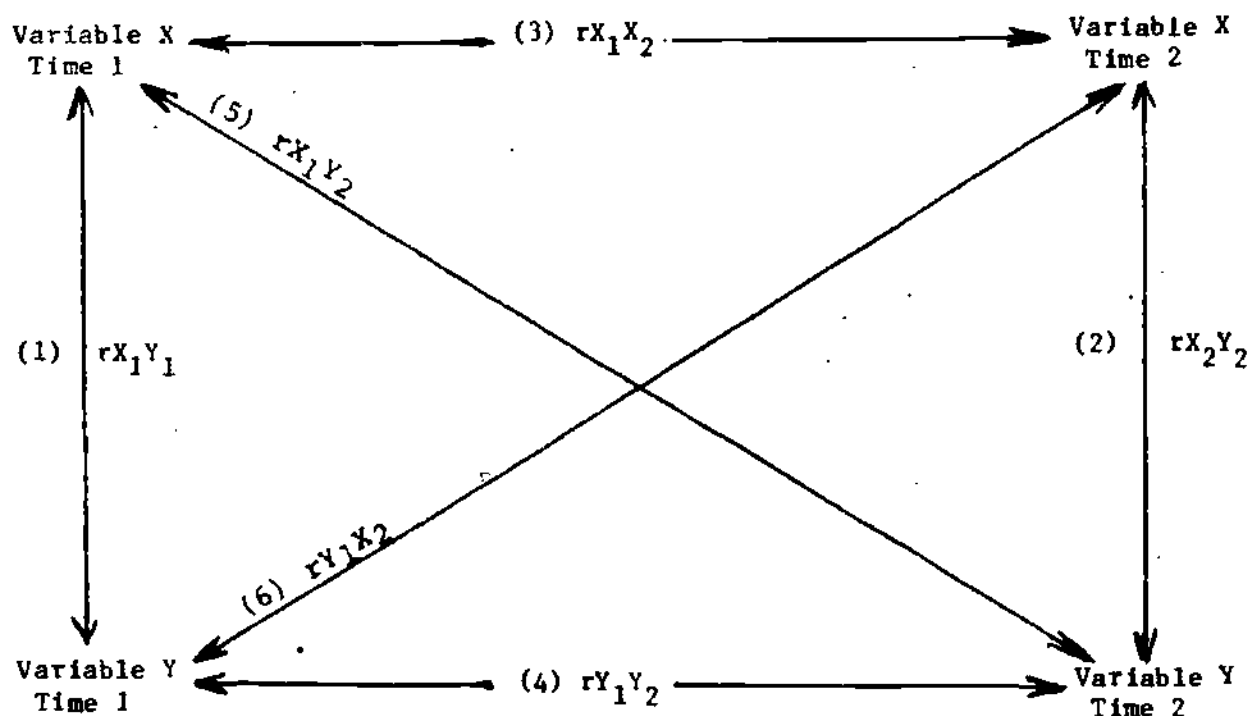
House and Dessler (1973) report a number of studies which show how the relation between leader style and subordinate satisfaction and expectations about successful performance and rewards is moderated by task structure. Halpin (1957) and Mulder and Stomerding (1963) found that the satisfaction of a leader's men with his directive behavior is moderated by the presence

of external threat (in this instance, combat conditions). Bass and Valenzi (1973) report findings which suggest that subordinate satisfaction with directive behavior is influenced by the degree of subordinate-leader difference in knowledge and expertise.

Pelz (1952) and Hunt, Osborn, and Larson (1973) show how the upward influence of the supervisor moderates the impact of his behavior upon subordinates. Wearing and Bishop (1970) show how the relationships between leader style and group performance and satisfaction are moderated by inter-group competition and the complementarity of leader-subordinate behavioral styles. And Fleishman, Harris, and Burt (1955) and Dawson, Messe, and Phillips (1972) report that correlations between leader proficiency ratings and their use of directive behavior were significantly positive only when there was a high degree of time pressure.

The findings cited above illustrate the complexities involved in a realistic study of leadership. Additional complications are introduced by the findings of Likert (1973) and others that many leader behavioral changes will not impact significantly upon subordinate perceptions, interpersonal behavior, or job performance for anywhere from six months to two years. Though cross-sectional research designs are being displaced by longitudinal designs, most longitudinal studies to date have been too limited as to total time span and number of data collection points within the span to detect these lead-lag relationships. And too few of these studies have had the benefit of types of statistical analysis which more fully exploit the data, such as, cross-lagged and dynamic correlation analyses (see Figure 2). These factors may help to explain why many researchers have not been able to reproduce the significant relationships of earlier studies and often come up with findings which are contradictory to them.

CROSS-LAGGED CORRELATION



DYNAMIC CORRELATION

$$r(\text{difference } X_1 X_2) (\text{difference } Y_1 Y_2)$$

If X causes Y then (5) should be larger than (6) and larger than (1) or (2) and (1) should approximate (2). A significant dynamic correlation will discount the possibility of a third causal variable.¹

Figure 2

¹For additional discussion see Pelz, D. C. and Andrews, F. M. "Detecting Causal Priorities in Panel Study Data," American Sociological Review, 29, 1964; and Vroom, V. H. "A Comparison of Static and Dynamic Correlation Methods in the Study of Organizations," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1, 1966. An analysis by Jack Hunter of Michigan State asserts a need for data from a minimum of three rather than two times. His paper on this, now in preparation, should be of considerable interest.

The term leader style has appeared a number of times in the discussion of studies reported above. We will now consider it in more detail, for style remains an important variable which can restrict a leader's effectiveness, depending upon the circumstances.

Leadership Styles and Problems in Studying Them

A leadership style is a behavioral predisposition or orientation on the part of a leader as he deals with the performance of management or leadership functions that results more from his personality or values than from the demands of the situation at hand. It is his preferred mode of response. Many leaders can be identified with different styles in approaching the same leadership problem or situation. When a leader's style is not appropriate to a given situation, it will handicap him to the extent that he is inflexible about changing his behavior.

What are these styles? We are all acquainted with some of the unserviceable and discredited ones: that of the ineffective trying to keep his job by discouraging questions by subordinates, supplying them only piecemeal with information they need for their jobs, rewarding personal loyalty over performance, playing off one subordinate against another to discourage strong group cohesion, getting rid of those who won't go along or are too likely to know the score, and by passing the buck in response to failure; that of the dishonest politician who cares only about his own power, status, and self-aggrandizement and not the interests of the organization or of his non-crony subordinates; and the behavior of the detached and indifferent do-nothing manager who has withdrawn from the field and ineffectively delegates all by default. Such styles clearly are unrelated to effective leadership. What are those which tend to be associated with conscientious men trying to do a job? A review of several factor analyses of descriptive data on leader

behavior - Haplin and Winer (1957), Bowers and Seashore (1966), Wofford (1970), Miller (1973), House and Dessler (1973) - suggests the following:

- A) Task Relevant Structuring Emphasis -- schedules tasks, stresses, adherence to standard operating procedures, maintains definite standards of performance, demonstrates initiative and decisiveness, relates rewards and penalties to performance.
- B) Support Emphasis -- is easily approachable, freely gives deserved credit to others, does things to make it pleasant to be a group member, strengthens the self-esteem of subordinates.
- C) Consultation, Participation Emphasis -- invites group member suggestions and gives serious consideration to them before initiating actions which affect either the individual and/or the group, readily shares relevant information with subordinates, appropriately delegates.

The opportunity for given style factors to show up in any given study is limited by the questions asked in the survey instrument and by the absence of a sufficient number of managers of a certain type in the population studied. If there are no questions about possible dimensions such as decisiveness, emphasis on the management of contingencies, use of aggressiveness for task achievement as opposed to self-enhancement, delegation with appropriate control, or withdrawal from responsible involvement. . . then these cannot emerge as style factors in a factor analytic study.

It should be kept in mind, also, that a number of studies have reported non-style factors such as technical competence and upward influence along with style factors. Technical competence represents a level of achievement rather than a management style, and though a given kind of striving for, or attempt to use, upward influence might properly be viewed as a style, the presence of upward influence would appear to be more the result of other factors than a style.

Often, survey instruments try to get at such dimensions as leader structuring behavior without regard to the context of a given situation. This is a serious limitation when one is trying to define management styles,

for the key to identification is the observed dominance of behaviors which are not required by a situation and may or may not be appropriate to it.

For this type of research, it would be helpful if respondents were asked to indicate what specific kinds of structuring behavior their leader exhibited under different circumstances, and the degree of appropriateness of such behavior. This could lead to quite different classifications of behavior, style-wise. One would expect this particularly for such instances as the leader giving instructions to a new or highly dependant subordinate, or giving them in the face of extreme time constraint, or during high internal or external group stress conditions.

We would need information from the leader, also. For example, before we could conclude that his style vis-à-vis a given subordinate is (B), support emphasis, because this is virtually the only behavior reported by the subordinate - quite favorably - for a variety of situations, we would have to determine his perception of the subordinate's need for other leader behaviors given the subordinate's training, experience, and demonstrated performance, and whether or not this perception is sound.

A controlled approach was used by Vroom and Yetton (1973). They surveyed the use of style (C), degree of consultation - participation emphasis, on the part of eight samples of managers (totaling 551) in dealing with thirty standardized problem situations which a panel of judges agreed would require varying degrees of participation on the part of group members. Though they did establish a style component in terms of the mean level of participativeness an individual would have used across the 30 problems, they found that situational factors had far more influence in determining an individual leader's choice of a unilateral versus a consultative-participative approach.

However, the Vroom and Yetton studies did not deal with other leader styles such as (A), Task Relevant Structuring Emphasis, and (B), Support Emphasis, and it may be that leadership behavior predisposition is far more influential, and therefore produces more stable behavior, with regard to these dimensions. This is a question that warrants further study. Until now, many have assumed the dominant factor in most situations to be autocratic versus democratic inclinations on the part of the leader, but the data collected by Vroom and Yetton suggest that a more influential underlying consideration may well be autocratic versus democratic situations.

They report, also, the interesting finding that the mean level of the manager's participativeness score had very low or insignificant correlations with his scores on such instruments as The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, the Orientation Inventory, or the Least Preferred Co-Worker Scales (LPC). There is little question that we need to improve our ability to accurately measure individual style tendencies across various situations so that we may more effectively assess and develop leadership skills.

Reasons For Adopting A Style

Why do leaders get hung up on a given style? Here and now experience can easily convince those who hold power over others that autocracy is preferable, even when it isn't. Decisions can be made quickly, and subordinates give prompt, overt compliance to orders and directives. When these conditions do not spell genuine effectiveness, they can still deceive those who do not adequately assess results over a long enough period of time. Also, autocracy is probably easier for those with authority who have poor self-control.

or feel inadequate with others. As Jacobs points out,¹ consultative behavior can pose problems for an authority figure, because it decreases power and status differences between him and his subordinates.

Levinson discusses the difficulties with trying to be supportive which can arise for managers at mid-life:

Repeatedly, in seminars on psychological aspects of management, cases refer to executives who cannot develop others, particularly men that have nothing to fear, in the sense that their future security is assured and they still have upward avenues open to them. What is not seen, let alone understood, in such cases is the terrible pain of rivalry in middle age in a competitive business context that places a premium on youth . . . Sessions devoted to examining how groups are working together should, if they are middle-aged groups, have this topic on the agenda.²

At the other extreme of permissiveness, we have those who are so anxious to be regarded as facilitators or "good guys" that they cannot accept the sometimes hard responsibilities and unpopularity of the leader's position. In reminiscing about his position as President of Antioch College, Douglas McGregor wrote that when he assumed office he "believed, for example, that a leader could operate successfully as a kind of adviser to his organization." Later he endorsed a comment from a colleague, "A good leader must be tough enough to win a fight, but not tough enough to kick a man when he is down."³

A style, then, may be adopted due to the emotional needs of the leader

¹Jacobs, T. O., Leadership and Exchange in Formal Organizations. Alexandria, Virginia: Human Resources Research Organization, 1971, p. 254.

²Levinson, H., "On Being A Middle-Aged Manager," Harvard Business Review, July - August 1969, pp. 56, 60.

³"On Leadership," Antioch Notes, Vol. 31 No. 9, May 1, 1954.

or to his misreading as to what is appropriate to the situation. Our normative model, based upon available research data, deals with the latter problem. It defines what currently appears to be the best approach under various circumstances.

A Normative Model of Leadership

After an extensive review of the literature, Katz and Kahn pointed out in 1966 that "Perhaps the most persistent and thoroughly demonstrated difference between successful and unsuccessful leadership at all three levels has to do with the distribution or sharing of the leadership function."¹ Samuel (1972) evaluated response data from 332 respondents in 50 work groups of different types and from different levels, selected randomly from 332 groups in 19 organizations representing six different industrial settings. His respondents indicated a practically uniform desire for greater participation, collaboration, and mutual responsiveness than they were experiencing.

The chief thrust of recent research findings has been to operationalize further the dimensions of effective participation, to ~~delineate those circumstances under which sharing is not preferable~~, and to suggest that such circumstances are in a minority of those encountered with various groups or with the same group over any extended period of time. In other words, the data indicate that we can specify when a sharing approach to leadership is not as effective as a unilateral approach for team-oriented task groups, and assume the general superiority of a sharing approach for all other team-oriented task group situations . . . as long as we differentiate leader relations with individual subordinates from this. The key contingent conditions, then, become those for not using a sharing approach.

¹ Katz, Daniel and Kahn, Robert L. The Social Psychology of Organizations New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1966, pp. 331-332.

Some feel that any gain in influence on the part of employees or lower level managers requires a corresponding reduction in the influence of their superiors. For evidence to the contrary from numerous studies see Tannenbaum (1968). The mean level of influence can be both high and equal for each organizational level. Tannenbaum found that organizational effectiveness is related positively to the amount of total influence in the system and Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) found that high total influence is related, also, to the effective integration of organizational activities. McMahon and Perritt (1973) asked 2537 top, middle, and lower line managers in twelve geographically dispersed plants how much influence they felt the three levels of management in each plant had in determining the work goals of the various plant departments. Their data support Tannenbaum's findings as to the role of high total influence, but add important new dimensions. They find that organizational effectiveness is enhanced further to the extent that high total influence is evenly distributed, and there is agreement among different level managers as to the amount and distribution of it.

Generally, the most viable goal for a leader is to strive to create conditions whereby consultation, participation, and delegation will be productive, ... in the meantime supplying necessary decision-making, coordination, coaching, guidance, and support which otherwise would not be available in the environment. An exception occurs, of course, when the leader is dealing with a highly transient or permanently alienated group with which participatory practices would be inappropriate.

The basic schema for the normative model draws heavily upon the formulation of Likert (1967) as refined by Bowers and Seashore (1966) and Taylor and Bowers (1972) and modified further on the basis of other research findings.

There are four behavioral areas. The first two, Leader Support and Consultative-Participative Decision-Making, are very similar to Leader Styles B and C which we discussed earlier. The last two, Work Facilitation and Goal Emphasis, separate and elaborate upon the activities of Leader Style A.

Leader Support

Leader is friendly and easy to approach, is willing to listen and attentive to problems and other matters people wish to discuss. He freely gives deserved credit to others, does things to make it pleasant to be a group member and to strengthen the self-esteem of his subordinates.

There are several important constraints upon the use of supportive behavior: time, required social distance, avoidance of the therapist-client role, and subordinate-organization goal conflict.

Time: Adequate time for listening to individual subordinates is a rare commodity for many supervisors given the daily pressures of their job. Too often, such time is not a conscious design input of the manager's job, but rather a residual that tends to get squeezed out. A supervisor may find that initially when subordinates really perceive a green light on this, a disproportionate amount of time will be required to dispose of the backlog of need that developed when individuals felt discouraged from approaching him. One solution (being experimented with by General Motors) is to assign a subordinate, full or part-time, to assist the supervisor with non-leadership management functions. This arrangement should have the advantage of providing optimal flexibility for adjustment to current conditions.

Often, a favorable time trade-off will occur. The supervisor will experience a significant decrease in time required for closer supervision and "fire-fighting" when he devotes more time to dealing with the individual problems which give rise to reduced motivation and effectiveness.

Required Social Distance: There are well established modes of address and interaction associated with many positions of leadership which are sustained by both custom and utility. Often these are accepted and respected as necessary and legitimate by subordinates. For example, the supervisor who spends more time socially with some subordinates than others may be seen as playing favorites.

The leader who unilaterally violates established values and practices runs the risk of creating serious problems. But there are few positions today in which a leader must violate established practice to develop sufficient informality and rapport with his subordinates and provide them with appropriate support.

Typically, what is appropriate social distance for an individual or group will vary as a function of circumstances. For example, a boss who normally does not embrace his secretary might quite naturally let her cry on his shoulder and comfort her in time of deep personal loss. Or a customary practice may outlive its usefulness or acceptability with the passage of time. When the leader has consulted with his group and has obtained organizational approval, he may appropriately modify a given practice.

Avoidance of the Therapist-Client Role: In those leadership situations where it is necessary that a leader evaluate his subordinates for possible termination, reward, and promotion, it is important that he not acquire types of private, confidential information through the counselling process which the subordinate may feel will adversely affect his standing. Sympathetic listening can easily induce troubled employees to divulge sensitive private matters which later they will regret they revealed to someone in a position of power over them. In addition to feeling embarrassed and threatened, they may feel that the supervisor "trapped them" in a moment of weakness.

It is not realistic for a supervisor to decide "not to use" such privileged information in making evaluative decisions, for in doing so he may seriously compromise his obligations to the group and the organization. And it is psychologically naive to assume that one can be totally uninfluenced by such information. When it appears that such a problem may arise, the supervisor should tactfully refer the subordinate to a "neutral," preferably professional, source of help.

S Subordinate-Organization Goal Conflict: The ability of a leader to be supportive is seriously curtailed when he must deal firmly with an individual subordinate whose values or goals are adamantly opposed to those of the group. He may have to sacrifice the purposes and even feelings of the individual to the welfare of the group or organization. This same approach may be necessary in dealing with basically hostile employees who will attack and try to discredit anyone in a position of authority over them, due to deep-seated personal maladjustment. Often, the presence of such individuals is simply the result of poor selection or placement practices.

In war, leaders often have to order their men to do things which the men find demeaning or with which they disagree. Most leaders at one time or another will find that they have to impose a decision or course of action on subordinates, when they cannot achieve basic agreement, due to the fact that they alone will be primarily responsible for the consequences. In many instances, the leader's unpopular decision will be vindicated in time, but in the short-term, imposition is likely to detract from a supportive role.

Of course, net perception of subordinates is the critical thing, and characteristic leader behavior will determine this far more than isolated instances. In effect, a supportive climate is not possible unless positive rather than negative motivation of individuals is the dominant mode. Posi-

tive motivation is based upon congruence, not conflict, between the goals and values of the individual and those of his leader and the organization.

The importance of leader supportive behavior is underscored by Reitz (1972). He surveyed 510 managers representing various levels of a financial organization and found that the supportive behavior scores they gave their superiors correlated as follows with their perception of the superior's competence and their own general satisfaction:

	Vice President	Assistant Vice President	Branch Manager	Exempt Supervisor	Non-Exempt Supervisor
General Satisfaction	.83	.69	.72	.69	.36
Competence of Supervision	.69	.69	.81	.66	.74

All of these correlations were significant at the 1% level or better. In a private communication, Reitz indicated that these same correlation levels were obtained in two subsequent large sample studies.

Consultative-Participative Decision-Making

Leader encourages subordinates to exchange information and ideas. When possible, he invites group member suggestions and gives serious consideration to them before finalizing decisions which affect either the individual or the group. He explains reasons for unilateral decisions and actions. Whenever feasible, he seeks consensus by sharing decision-making information and processes with the group. If in a position which requires his retention of veto power, he uses it as sparingly as possible. He appropriately delegates decision-making to individuals, the group, or subgroups with a level of collaboration desired by them. When possible, he gives advance notice of changes and is candid and open to questions. Whenever possible, he strives for decisions relative to the pursuit of given organizational objectives which accommodate the needs and values of his subordinates.

The following are important constraints upon the use of consultative-participative decision-making: real-time pressure, absence of subordinate desire to participate with regard to a matter about which the leader has sufficient information and expertise to make a high quality decision, and circumstances

which require the leader to impose decisions.

Real-Time Pressure: No one expects an infantry platoon leader caught in open ambush to call a decision-making conference with his men! It is his responsibility alone to give the right orders, and to give them quickly and concisely. The same time constraints may prevail under emergency conditions with any group.

Real-time constraints under non-emergency conditions also may preclude both consultation and participation in decision-making. A good example is the symphony orchestra conductor who must be completely unilateral in direction during concerts. This is the only conceivable behavior open to him under the circumstances and, therefore, it is positive behavior. This illustrates the difficulty of trying to evaluate leader behavior without regard to situational context. Of course, the acceptability of the orchestra leader's directive behavior in the eyes of his subordinates probably will be influenced by whether or not he is implementing a concert plan which had the benefit of appropriate consultative-participative decision-making during rehearsals.

The ~~time constraint~~ varies as to degree, and though the leader may not be able to convene a group meeting, he may still have time to consult with some or all of the subordinates concerned before making a decision. The key point is whether or not subordinates feel that the leader encourages the optimal level of individual and group participation which is feasible and is permitted by the time constraints in any given situation. Unfortunately, many overlook the fact that delegation to an able, motivated subordinate provides for participation with nominal time demands upon the leader.

Absence of Subordinate Desire: It is erroneous to assume that all individuals seek participation in decision-making about all matters which may

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affect them. There are several reasons why they do not.

Selective Interests: A study by Frasher (1969) emphasized the extent to which influentials in an organization prefer to become involved selectively with those problems or planning areas which most interest them. Often, people feel that the benefits of a given participation are not worth the cost in time and effort. Limited time and energy are constraints here, also. Due to competing demands, an individual may prefer to skip current but not necessarily future participation in certain decision-making activity. Consequently, it is important for a leader to determine periodically possible areas of over-consultation as well as under-consultation with his subordinates.

Inability of Leader to Deliver: Studies by Pelz (1952) and Wager (1965) show that subordinate response to normally good leader behaviors may be negative if subordinates perceive that the leader cannot deliver reasonably well on deserved pay increases, promotions, and other individual and group needs. "Why plan for becoming promotable, or for improving present facilities?", the subordinate feels. "Why work hard on a committee when you know that its recommendations will be ignored?" Subordinates understandably do not wish to invest their energies and hopes in decision-making activities which they feel will have little if any payoff.

Differential Leader Experience/Expertise: Subordinates may not wish to participate in a particular decision due to their confidence in the leader's superior ability to produce a high quality, wholly acceptable outcome, unilaterally.

Subordinate Incapacity: Subordinates simply may not have the capability, technical or otherwise, which would permit meaningful participation in a given decision process.

Subordinate Personality: Certain aspects of personality affect the

attractiveness to subordinates of opportunities for participation. There is the dependable and valuable individual with "high security" and "low self-esteem" who does not want a chance to shape policy or to show what he can do. He emotionally needs a dependent relationship, with his supervisor calling the shots. He usually resents attempts to get him involved in decision-making. A typical response is, "I'm not paid to do that."

An individual may have been programmed to view participation in making certain types of decisions as illegitimate, or he may respect the wishes of his group or others in the organization who hold such a view.

Vroom (1959, 1960) and Dessler (1973) report findings which show that subordinates who are high in the trait of authoritarianism place a much lower value on opportunities for participation in decision-making. It may well be that such individuals prefer unilateral action by the leader. On the other hand, those who are strong in their need for autonomy or independence appear to place a higher than average value on opportunities for participation.

Leader Must Impose Decisions Upon the Group: As we discussed before, the pressure of subordinate-organization goal conflict makes it difficult for a leader to get meaningful subordinate involvement in planning. In addition to the constraint of goal conflict, there may be apathy. For example, temporary or transient employees often are indifferent to the current and future problems of an organization. Other employees may shift their primary allegiance to some external organization such as a national union whose current goals may be incompatible with the best interests of the organization. Under such circumstances the best the leader can hope to do is collect adequate data, make decisions, and explain the reasons for them in requiring compliance.

We have examined a number of constraints on the use of subordinate parti-

cipation in decision-making. How does one determine the degree to which one or more of these is applicable to a given situation? One approach is for the leader to consult with his subordinates to determine appropriate levels of participation. He can regularly determine what areas individual subordinates feel under-consulted about, and what areas they feel over-consulted about, and adjust his behavior accordingly. With certain individuals or groups he will have to move slowly, for sudden shifts toward participation can produce skepticism and anxiety.¹

There are times when the leader will need information or guidance with regard to decision areas which subordinates do not wish to get involved with, and he will have to impose consultation upon them to increase his likelihood of producing a high quality decision. But this is a relatively minor problem, for the dangers of this type of over-consultation are more than offset by the dangers of under-consultation and under-participation.

It is bad to use subordinates as information sources only when it is feasible to wholly involve them in the decision-making process. It is as important to gain subordinate acceptance of and commitment to most decisions as it is to assure their quality. Yet Vroom and Yetton (1973) report that the typical manager in their study was much more likely to risk not getting commitment than to risk low decision quality in his choice of a decision-making approach.

Studies by Lewin (1943) Coch and French (1948) Fox (1957) and others have pointed up the values of participative decision-making. Through participation

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For discussion of specific steps for productive group decision-making, see Maier, Norman R. F., Problem-Solving Discussions and Conferences: Leadership Methods and Skills. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963.

group members are given an opportunity to vent their objections and reservations and, thereby, become more emotionally open to rational decision-making and decision acceptance. Participation tends to strengthen an individual's sense of belonging and worth and, thereby, his self-esteem. Facts and conclusions one discovers for one's self in a working through process are more likely to induce commitment and subsequent action. And public commitment in the presence of a valued group tends to enhance this effect.

Work Facilitation

Leader trains subordinate, consults with him on job related problems and ways to improve performance, helps him to plan and schedule work ahead of time anticipating detailed needs and problems, provides appropriate equipment, materials, and favorable working conditions, and sees that decisions are made and implemented in time.

The leader may have little control over many of the constraints to work facilitation such as, deficient production planning and control external to the work unit, external supply of poor tools and materials and low aptitude recruits, inadequate machine maintenance support and other kinds of technical support, union rules which forbid the use of more efficient procedures or tools or the giving of mutual assistance on the part of employees from different job jurisdictions.

Constraints which are more subject to the leader's control are lack of upward influence to get the physical support his group needs, lack of technical expertise about the work of his unit, and lack of decisiveness.

Lack of Upward Influence: The constraining effects of lack of upward influence on the part of the leader may go beyond an inability to get necessary or desired physical support. For example, Pelz (1952) found that when helpful attempts of supervisors went unrewarded due to lack of influence, their subordinates tended to be less satisfied than if their supervisors had maintained a neutral position or had not made the attempts.

Lack of Technical Expertise: Farris (1973) conducted a study of twenty-one small research groups. He averaged subordinate responses to various items on supervision to obtain data as to the practices of their supervisors. He obtained an innovation score in percentile form for each subordinate by combining the evaluations of several judges acquainted with their work. He found that for supervisors high in technical skills, their critical evaluation behavior was positively related to subordinate innovation. But, for supervisors low in technical skills, their critical evaluation behavior was negatively related to subordinate innovation. In addition, he found that for supervisors high in technical skills, provision of freedom to subordinates correlated zero with subordinate innovation. But, for supervisors low in technical skills, provision of freedom correlated .60 with innovation. It is apparent that leader technical skills can have an important moderating effect upon the impact of his other behaviors.

The importance of this constraint varies with the situation. But, the leader must have sufficient technical knowledge to communicate effectively with his subordinates and to be able to make judgments about their work. In some situations, he will not be able to earn the respect and acceptance of his subordinates unless his technical skills are at least equal to theirs... and in other situations they may have to be decidedly superior. In any event, certain kinds of assistance the leader can give his subordinates on job related problems are quite dependent on his level of technical expertise.

Lack of Decisiveness: The ability and willingness of a leader to see to it that decisions are made and effectively implemented in time is of basic importance. Adherence to appropriate schedules is necessary for effective coordinated action toward objectives. Some structure must be provided,

whether primarily from the leader, the situation, the subordinates or some combination of the three. The larger the group coupled with either time pressure, external threat, or differential leader knowledge or skill, the more likely that subordinates as a group will expect and welcome more unilateral task structuring from the leader. This generalization, however, does not apply as readily to relations with individuals, due to types of individual differences discussed earlier.

House, Filley, and Gujarati (1971) found that leader decisiveness correlates positively with leader structuring behavior and technical competence, and has moderately high positive correlation with subordinate satisfaction. They report that Comrey, Pfiffner, and High (1954) found decisiveness to be positively related to leader effectiveness in widely different populations.

Actually, the label "structuring" is much too general. The kind of structuring given is critical. A subordinate is likely to perceive quite differently his supervisor clarifying goals versus spelling out in detail how to do something. . . his supervisor explaining reasons for orders from above versus unilaterally initiating orders without giving reasons.

Structure given in response to a felt need is likely to be viewed differently than structure given when a subordinate deems it unnecessary.

An important distinction relating to decisiveness is made, also, by Wofford (1970). His factor analysis of the responses of 136 persons from various levels in some 85 companies indicates that the leader's use of authority for personal power and enhancement is not conceptually related by subordinates to his aggressive and firm pursuit of organizational goals.

Korr, Schriesheim, Murphy, and Stodgill (1973) report that Hemphill, Siegel, and Westie (1957) found that discrepancies between observed and ex-

pected leader consideration and structuring behaviors were more closely related to performance than were either observed or expected behavior scores alone. Fleishman and Harris (1962) pointed out that under conditions of high leader consideration, structuring behavior may be perceived as supportive and helpful, whereas, under low consideration conditions, the same structuring behavior may be seen as restrictive and threatening.

Findings from a number of subsequent studies have been consistent with this interpretation. Dawson, Messe, and Phillips (1972) found that all levels of initiating structure by the leader were associated with high performance when leader consideration was perceived to be high, but when consideration was perceived to be low, all levels of structuring were associated with low performance. Though interesting and apparently supportive to out normative model, these findings are only suggestive. As the factor analytic study by Miller (1973) points out, the Ohio State Initiating Structure and Consideration categories are quite general, containing in part somewhat diverse behaviors.

The specific type of structuring or consideration behavior that the individual subordinate and the group expect or need from the leader is determined by a number of personal and situationally bound variables. The leader should try to get regular feedback as to whether he is giving the right kind and amount of work related structuring behavior. He should distinguish his roles with regard to decision-making vis-a-via his subordinates from his roles with regard to the implementation of plans and decisions.

Goal Emphasis

Leader uses appropriate process to develop realistic goals and plans and gain commitment to them, he stresses high standards of performance for himself and his subordinates, and establishes appropriate contingencies between rewards and individual and group performance.

Among constraints to goal emphasis will be the leader's lack of skill in consultative-participative decision-making, his lack of technical and conceptual abilities relative to the tasks at hand, lack of personal commitment to those tasks, and his freedom to manage contingencies of reinforcement effectively, and skill in doing so.

Lack of Skill in Consultative-Participative Decision-Making: This is an important constraint to Goal Emphasis on the part of the leader, for skill in consultative-participative techniques is a prime tool for producing quality decisions and for gaining commitment to them. There is evidence that this is a lack about which something can be done, as will be discussed later.

Lack of Technical, Conceptual Abilities: Lack of technical ability due to inadequate training or knowledge is likely to be easier to remedy than the inability to conceptualize the interrelationships among factors in various problems and situations. When conditions justify the cost, a solution for either problem might be the appointment of a leadership team of two persons who possess complementary skills and are compatible.

Lack of Personal Commitment: It is hard for a leader to gain commitment from others to goals which he, personally, is lukewarm about. Some leaders avoid this problem by finding organizations with which they share strongly held values and goals. Whenever possible, others might try to develop goals which are consistent with their own "stylistic objectives" and those of their group members. Ackoff (1970) suggests that by making explicit our emotionally based preferences about what we should and should not be doing, without regard to current "profitability," the air may be cleared for more consistent and enthusiastic pursuit of both preferred and "profitable" goals.

Management of Contingencies: Cherrington, Reitz, and Scott (1971) show how appropriate financial reinforcement can moderate the relationship

between satisfaction and performance. Appropriate reinforcement means that high performers received a fixed bonus equal to base pay that low performers did not receive. Inappropriate reinforcement means that low performers received the bonus and high performers did not. When they lumped their appropriately and inappropriately reinforced subjects together, they obtained largely inconsequential correlations between performance and satisfaction. But for inappropriately rewarded subjects alone, they obtained highly significant negative correlations between performance and satisfaction. And these inappropriately rewarded subjects produced significantly less than appropriately rewarded ones.

Wofford (1971) tested the expectancy theory of job satisfaction and job performance with data from 207 nonmanagerial employees of four companies. He found that satisfaction is a function of the extent to which active needs are fulfilled, and that it is enhanced through expectation that efforts will be rewarded. He found the job performance of his subjects to be significantly related to expectancy of reward and strength of needs (biserial r 's of .43 and .36 respectively, with an n of 95). The data from both of these studies challenge the widely held assumption of a simple causal relationship between satisfaction and performance.

Greene (1973) studied 73 managers and two of their immediate subordinates in two organizations. He used the Contingency Questionnaire, Reitz (1972), to assess subordinate perceptions of leader contingency management. He obtained ratings as to the quality and quantity of subordinate performance from peers. Data were collected for three time periods with approximately one month intervals. On the basis of cross-lagged and dynamic correlation analysis he found that the presence of appropriate performance-reinforcement

contingencies is an important aspect of leader behavior . . . more significant than leader style in its impact on subordinate performance and satisfaction.

The relative influence between an individual's personal values and situational factors in determining his behavior depends upon his perception of what behavior will be reinforced in the situation and the importance of such reinforcement to him. To the extent that situational variables are weak or ambiguous or he doesn't care about the consequences of his behavior in the given situation, he will "do his thing" whether or not it is appropriate.

Those who control what people want, do much to control the motivation climate. Typically, people who are controlled by penalties for role violations do not get rewarded for role compliance. The net impact of the reward-penalty system should be encouragement of taking opportunities when there are reasonable chances for success, not emphasis on avoidance of error. Too often, a reinforcement system is not geared to all of the behaviors considered important to a job. There is a strong pull for most of us through time toward giving a system what it "pays" for rather than what it merely "says" it wants.

It is important to use rewards which are most meaningful to the person being rewarded. The main problem, of course, has to do with determining what an individual's basic goals and values are. Harry Levinson suggests three indexes which are useful for this purpose:

1. The strongly held values of parents or other significant persons whom the individual identified with during earlier years.
2. The nature of the person's "peak experiences" in life.

3. Analysis of the course of career choices: is there a discernible pattern to suggest certain behavioral consistencies?¹

After determining what employees want, it is useful to compare this with what their supervisor and the organization make available.

A last but most crucial point is the questionability of viewing current subordinate performance as a valid index of current leader effectiveness. Likert (1967, 1973) reports data from a broad range of organizations which show that it often takes one to two years for improvements in supervisory behavior to produce lasting improvements in subordinate performance. Sometimes, desirable behavioral change on the part of the leader will be accompanied by short-term deterioration in performance before performance climbs to new heights. On the other hand, increases in punitive, coercive behaviors can produce temporary performance improvements, but with the bottom dropping out of things six to eighteen months later. Yet, the most common practice is for managers to be rewarded or penalized on the basis of current or past subordinate performance, without adequate consideration of the circumstances which give rise to such performance. As was mentioned earlier, cross-lagged and dynamic correlation analyses provide help in pin-pointing fallacious cause-effect assumptions (see Figure 2).

Figure 3 presents a number of these lead-lag relationships based upon research findings. It has been found, for example, that there is a 6-12 month interval between the time that survey feedback intervention treatment is initiated with supervisors and positive changes in supervisor behavior

¹ "Management By Whose Objectives?", Harvard Business Review July - August 1970, as elaborated upon by Dr. Levinson during his conduct of a Workshop in Industrial Mental Health and Managerial Stress (Sponsored by the APA) in Washington, September 2, 1971.

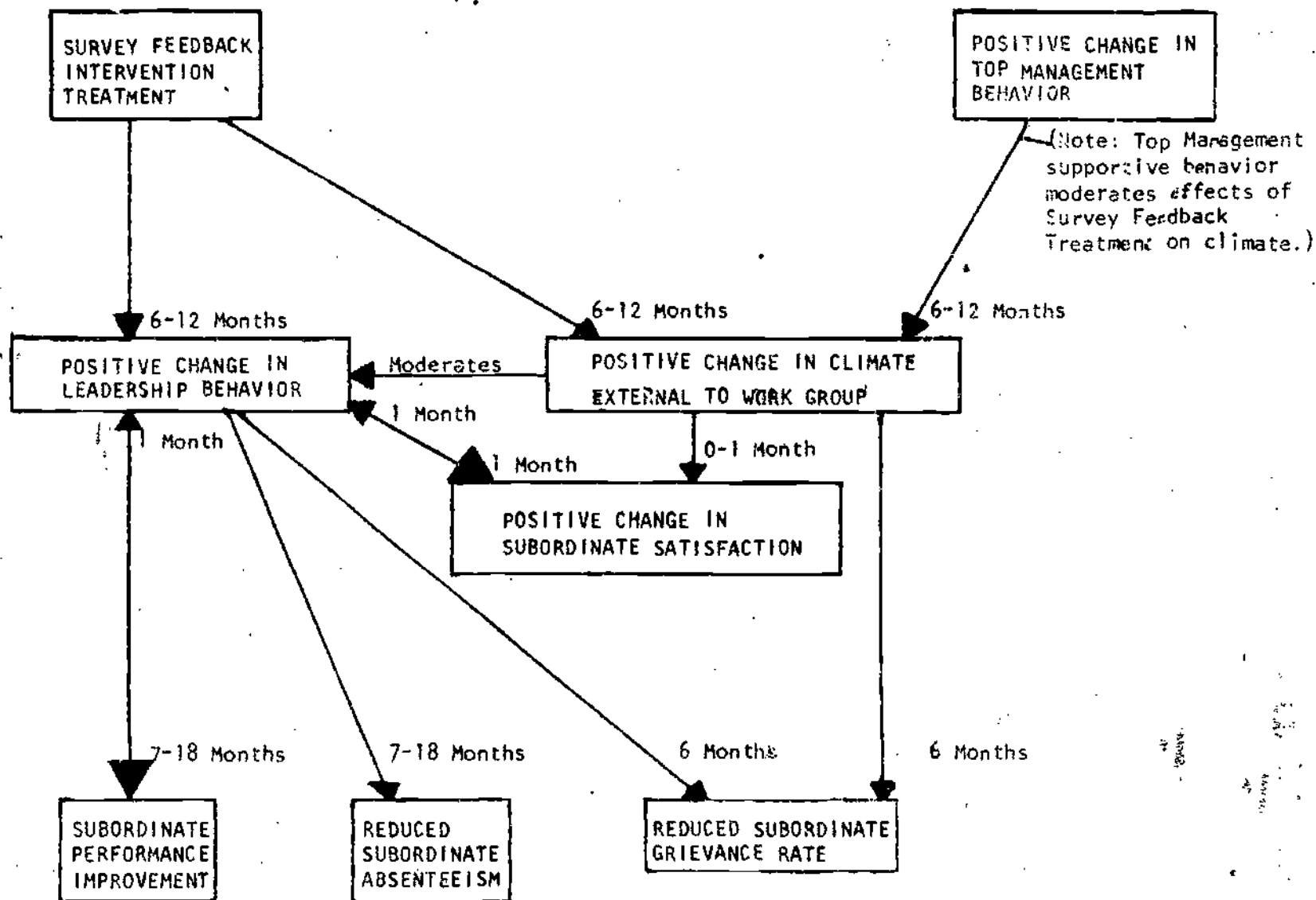


FIGURE 3

and climate external to their groups are perceived by group members. In addition, favorable changes in top management behavior tend to create favorable climate changes, also, as seen by group members 6 - 12 months later. It has been found that the presence of top management support at the start of the intervention treatment has a positive moderating effect upon the impact of the treatment on climate . . . and, in turn, positive climate change moderates the impact of the treatment upon supervisory behavior.

Favorable changes in both supervisory leadership and climate are associated with positive changes in subordinate satisfaction only one to four weeks later, and with reduced subordinate grievances some six months later. Positive change in supervisory leadership is associated with subordinate performance improvement and reduced absenteeism 7 - 18 months later. Reciprocal relationships are in evidence, also, with performance improvement and reduced absenteeism causing, in part, positive supervisory behavior, with a time lag of about one month.

Figure 3 generalizes data from a number of studies which provided for too few data collection points. The important area of peer leadership (performance of leadership functions by group members) is missing completely, simply because we have insufficient data with which to interrelate it. There is great need for research to define more accurately the nature of all of these relationships.

Every organization should establish for itself the character of relationships between each of the leader behaviors in the normative model and various desired outputs. As lagged effects are documented, reward-penalty systems should be modified so that leaders are reinforced in the short-term for striving toward behavioral improvement, and are seriously penalized for

production increases anytime which are achieved through destructive behaviors. This approach requires that regular surveys be conducted to determine how subordinates perceive their leaders to be handling the various dimensions of leadership.

These regular surveys should monitor the adequacy of performance of leadership functions by subordinates (peer leadership), also. We need both kinds of information before we can fairly assess a leader's behavior at any point in time, for our normative model encourages the shifting of as many aspects of leadership to group members as is appropriate to the situation. A high degree of relatively autonomous and quite effective group functioning will often result from such efforts, especially, in certain environments such as those for continuous process work. The supervisor should be rewarded, not penalized, for the maintenance of this modus operandi, once it is established. The results of a study by Taylor (1973) show that it can be disruptive to group functioning in such situations if a leader is encouraged to increase the level of participative leadership that he personally provides in "competition" with established peer leaders.

This completes our normative model of leadership for team-oriented task groups. We have dealt with Support, Consultative-Participative Decision-Making, Work Facilitation, and Goal Emphasis in somewhat of a piecemeal fashion for the sake of detail and should stress again the additive and interactive effects associated with these dimensions of leadership in real life situations. The major elements of the model are summarized in Figure 4.

The Survey of Organizations question sets (Taylor and Bowers 1972) are based upon more limited conceptualization of these areas than has been presented in this normative model. Analysis of data collected with them, however,

NORMATIVE MODEL

BEHAVIOR AREAS	CONSTRAINTS
<u>Leader Support</u>	Time Required Social Distance Therapist Role Pitfall Goal Conflict
<u>Consultative-Participative Decision-Making</u>	Real-Time Presaure Absence of Subordinate Desire Selective Interest Leader Can't Deliver Differential Expertiae Incapacity Personality Need to Impose Decisions
<u>Work Facilitation</u>	Lack of Influence Lack of Expertise Lack of Decisiveness
<u>Goal Emphasis</u>	Low Consultative-Participative Skill Low Technical-Conceptual Abilities Lack of Commitment Management of Contingencies

Figure 4

shows that 43% of the variance in Support, 40% in Goal Emphasis, 39% in Work Facilitation, and 45% in Interaction Facilitation can be accounted for by a general factor that underlies all four indices.¹ Several things may contribute to this: "factorial impurity" in the survey questions used, respondent "halo" effect, and underlying leadership skill across the four dimensions. Additional research will be needed to determine the relative importance of these. It would seem reasonable to assume that a general factor underlies the four dimensions as presented in the normative model here.

Potential For Change

The normative model calls for adaptive behavior on the part of the leader. The usefulness of the model will be limited to the extent that managers are constrained from moving toward its prescribed behaviors. We have identified leader style as a major constraint. Just how influential is it in accounting for leader behavior? Is a sizeable proportion of the management population essentially untrainable, due to the style factor? The findings from a number of studies suggest otherwise.

Not only are the effects of leadership contingent upon many factors as indicated earlier, significant aspects of leader behavior appear to be contingent upon the situation. Heller (1971) found that immediate subordinates reported different behaviors for their superiors in dealing with twelve classes of decisions. Fiedler (1970) and Larson and Rowland (1972) found that situation stressfulness as perceived by high and low LPC individuals moderates their use of task and relations oriented behaviors.

¹Taylor and Bowers (1972) p. 58.

Lowin and Craig (1968) obtained evidence that subordinate performance significantly affects leader initiating structure, consideration, and closeness of supervision behaviors. Farris and Lim (1969) found that high past performance by subordinates increased leader emphasis on the Likert behavior categories of supportiveness, work facilitation, goal emphasis, and interaction facilitation (team building). On the basis of his study of 50 work groups in different types of organizations, Samuel (1972) reports that changes in group consensus behavior account for approximately 25% of the variance in managerial behavior change, especially with regard to supportive behavior. And Hill (1973) found that only 17 of 124 first and middle level English supervisors were seen as likely to use only one of four behavioral approaches in four hypothetical situations.

Greene (1973) found subordinate performance to be more the cause of leader initiating structure and consideration behaviors than vice-versa. Bass and Valenzi (1973) report that the extent to which a manager is seen to use a particular approach is correlated with the extent to which he is seen to have more power and information than his subordinates.

Vroom and Yetton (1973) studied the behavior of several hundred managers with regard to thirty different standardized case situations. They conclude that the extent to which a manager shares decision-making power with subordinates is a function of situational factors (which in their study were attributes of the different case situations), individual differences, and the interactions between them.

With regard to individual differences, they found : some managers response to conflict by becoming more participative, while others become more unilateral. They found a predisposition toward using or not using participation

on the part of many managers (the style factor), but observed, also, a significant variation in approach used across the various problem situations. Also, they found that individual managers perceive the same problem situations differently in terms of inferring a need for a participatory approach. Though their study did not include varying degrees of time constraint or stress external to the group, they found that their situational factors accounted for four times as much variance as individual differences in determining choice of leadership method for decision-making.

Undoubtedly, many other studies would have reported similar variability of leader behavior had respondents involved been asked to describe leader behavior in the context of specific situations, rather than characterize it over all situations (in terms of style).

Effecting Behavioral Change

Data presented by Fiedler (1970-A) which relate years of supervisory experience to group performance suggest that the passage of time in a leadership role, per se, does not tend to enhance leadership effectiveness. The reviews by Mosvick (1969, 1971) point to disappointing results from many training programs directed at changing leader behavior. Yet, a most promising tool for behavioral change appears to be the provision of feedback. Especially so, when it is provided as part of a total organizational program. Only suggestive evidence is presented in the first section below, but then we will consider findings based upon very substantial Michigan data.

Feedback Alone

Fox (1954) conducted a study which required the instruction of two leaders in the use of two styles of discussion leadership. Under a Positive Style the leader:

1. drew upon the group for ideas or an agenda for discussion
2. fostered a permissive atmosphere by limiting his verbal participation to less than one-third of the total
3. gave unbiased recognition and understanding to ideas and comments from the group, giving praise or censure sparingly and objectively
4. obtained relevant technical or objective information for the group and periodically summarized significant group thought
5. employed role-playing, role reversal, and risk description techniques when they seemed appropriate
6. encouraged compromise, intelligent understanding, and willing acceptance of group solutions by each individual as substitutes for decision by vote
7. used group self-evaluation to relieve tension in a crisis.

In many respects the Negative Style was opposite to the Positive Style.

Under this the leader:

1. prepared an agenda unilaterally
2. used diplomatic persuasion to sell "his ideas" to the group, verbally contributing more than 50% of the total
3. demonstrated partiality by non-objectively giving praise and encouragement to individuals or factions who supported his views and polite criticism to those who did not
4. acted as an expert information giver giving greater emphasis to data supporting his views, periodically summarized in a manner favorable to his position
5. discouraged the use of role-playing, role reversal, or risk description techniques but used them in a manipulative manner if he felt compelled by group pressure to use them at all
6. encouraged acceptance of his position and frustrated opposition through the use of majority votes
7. dealt with crises by imposing his authority as assigned leader upon the group.

*Note: to control decision quality, decisions arrived at earlier through positively led discussions in similar groups were presented as the leader's ideas under the Negative Style.

After sufficient discussion to assure common understanding as to the implications of the two styles, each leader practiced each style for 20-30 minutes before two live groups. At this point both leaders reported a strong feeling basis for differentiating the two styles, to go with their intellectual basis. They felt group resistance and negativism in response to the Negative Style that was absent in response to the Positive Style. For example, one leader, an Air Force Major who instructed at a local training field, said that this was the first time that he had become aware of the limitations to his "autocratic charm."

At the end of the study, after each leader had role-played the Positive Style an additional seven hours and the Negative Style an additional 3.5 hours before different groups, both stated that the importance of the distinction between the two Styles had been indelibly impressed upon them. They felt that they had developed a new sensitivity to group response.

There was other evidence that the two Styles had differential impact on the groups. Though all groups achieved voting unanimity, group members reported (anonymously) that they experienced significantly greater satisfaction and attitude change when led Positively rather than Negatively.

Vroom and Yetton (1973) are studying the effects of computer generated feedback to decision-makers. Though a statistical analysis is not yet available, they report that the typical manager displays a willingness to explore alternatives to his behavior as he becomes more aware of the choices which are implicit in his style.

Feedback In Context

Analysis of extensive field data at the University of Michigan Institute for Survey Research by Bowers (1971) indicates that the ISR Survey Feedback

Approach has been more consistently productive in altering managerial behavior than Interpersonal Process Consultation, Work Process Consultation, or Laboratory Training. This superior record appears to be due in large part to the fact that it has been employed in more of a total system context where in positive change starts at the top and works downward in the organization and management of contingencies is altered to support the target behaviors sought. Too often, other intervention efforts have been directed at individual problem departments or specific managers without taking into account adequately the total organizational milieu. This can be dysfunctional as has been demonstrated in many instances of laboratory training where successful trainees are made too vulnerable to unaltered reward-penalty systems which actually punish them for their newly acquired openness and aversion to playing the game of one-upmanship.

An ISR approach for motivating a leader to want to change is provided by having him and his subordinates independently describe his leadership behavior on the same survey questions. Unexpected and unwelcome discrepancy is a potent motivator!

Any manager who wants to see the Survey Report on his unit has to agree to join a group of peers to discuss it. He is given, also, the opportunity to work with specially trained change agents on an individual counselling basis. The goal is to ease him into discussions of his leadership and unit problems with his own subordinates and encourage intergroup discussion among different level peer groups. Large changes are tackled on a step-by-step basis. Management By Group Objectives (MBGO) is meshed with Management By Objectives (MBO).

Samuel (1972) stresses the importance of consultative-participative

leader behavior in a facilitative organizational milieu in effecting change. After comparing the effects of various approaches to organization development, he concludes that social consensus appears to exert greater impact on the modification of behavior, or the effecting of change, than do most of the formally planned change programs he evaluated. He found that contextual and structural constraints significantly affect potential for change.

One cannot create lasting opportunity for organizational members to participate appropriately without giving balanced attention to both process and structural elements. A change program will fail if it does not harmonize various sub-systems for planning, control, assessment and reward, work facilitation, conflict resolution, inter-group coordination, information flow, and so on.

When one compares research findings on lead-lag relationships between leader behaviors and outcomes (see Figure 3) with widespread practice, it is apparent that the assessment and reward system is the one most likely to prove in need of major overhaul. As lead-lag relationships are established for each organization, management personnel must be assured that they will be rewarded in the short-term for desirable behavior change, even in the face of temporary deterioration of subordinate performance. They must know, also, that they will receive no rewards for performance improvements which are accompanied by deteriorating organizational values as determined by appropriate surveys.

Conclusion

We have examined circumstances under which a sharing approach is not as effective as a unilateral approach for the leadership of team-oriented task groups. The preponderance of data show that a sharing approach is

superior in all other circumstances.

The concept of sharing we have developed goes well beyond the sharing of decision-making power by the leader. It involves, also, giving support to subordinates by sharing hardships, successes and feelings of warmth with them; it involves facilitating their work by sharing job knowledge, skills, and suggestions with them; and it involves providing goal emphasis by sharing enthusiasm, commitment, and pride in achievement with them. In fact, it advocates sharing all of the management functions depicted in Figure 1 to the fullest extent which is feasible at the time. To the degree that a leader makes unilateral decisions and withholds work facilitation, goal emphasis, or support when sharing would be feasible, he is choosing a unilateral approach.

Evidence so far suggests that a majority of managers can be taught to shift to normative leader behaviors if provided with appropriate guidance and organizational support. But, obviously, this does not apply to those who are seriously misplaced or lack key personal characteristics. The successful leader must have genuine concern about protecting the interests of his subordinates. He must have appropriate technical knowledge about the work of his unit, and he must possess those personal qualities which encourage decisiveness and discourage evasion of responsibility.

Even without assistance many leaders can profit from self-evaluation leading to modification of behavior based upon periodic, anonymous description and assessment information from subordinates. If higher management wants to assess the likelihood that lasting change can result from such activity, it should survey organizational climate factors such as human resources primacy, communications flow, motivational conditions, and decision-

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making practices (see Taylor and Bowers 1972) which moderate changes in leader behavior as illustrated in Figure 3. The system must tangibly support the kinds of behavior it says it wants, if it is to nurture and maintain such behavior.

Often, just restraint alone in the use of certain behaviors will significantly improve subordinate leadership, performance, and satisfaction. For, conceptually, if a manager is to give balanced attention to all of the duties and responsibilities of his job, there is such a thing as too much consideration as well as too much structuring . . . to go with the obvious limitations of too little consideration and too little structuring. The non-linear relationships found between these (as leader styles) and such factors as supervisory ratings, turnover and grievance rates, and subordinate satisfaction by Fleishman and Harris (1962) and Skinner (1969) lend credence to this observation.

Further indication of a need for balanced attention to both consideration and structuring behaviors is found in the data on aircraft commanders and their crews collected by John Hemphill and his research group during the Korean War. Their findings suggest that the leader who most likely will satisfy his crew as well as his superiors will score above average in both of these behavioral areas.¹

If we use potential impact upon current practice as a criterion, top research priority should be given to establishing lead-lag relationships between our normative leader behaviors, the peer leadership aspects of these behaviors, and various effectiveness criteria at different levels within

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Reported in Concepts of Air Force Leadership edited by Major D. E. Johnson. Air Force ROTC, Air University, 1970, pp. 462-467.

various typtes of organizations. For most reward systems in use today are based upon the assumption that, generally, current subordinate performance indicates current leader effectiveness. It is in this area that the biggest divergence now exists between "what is" and what, apparently, "should be."

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